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EURO CRISIS

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the impact of credit rating changes on the sovereign spreads in the European Union and investigates the macro and financial factors that account for the time varying effects of a given credit rating change. We find that changes of ratings are informative, economically important and highly statistically significant in panel models even after controlling for a host of domestic and global fundamental factors and investigating various functional forms, time and country groupings and dynamic structures. Dynamic panel model estimates indicate that a credit rating upgrade decreases CDS spreads by about 45 basis points, on average, for EU countries. However, the association between credit rating changes and spreads shifted markedly between the pre-crisis and crisis periods. European countries had quite similar CDS responses to credit rating changes during the pre-crisis period, but that large differences emerged during the crisis period between the now highly-sensitive GIIPS group and other European country groupings (EU and Euro Area excluding GIIPS, and the non-EU area). We also find a complicated non-linear pattern dependent on the level of the credit rating. The results are robust to the including credit “outlook” or “watch” signals by credit rating agencies. In addition, contagion from rating downgrades in GIIPS to other euro countries is not evident once own-country credit rating changes are taken into account.

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1. Introduction and Overview

Concerns about the information content of credit ratings and their association with sovereign spreads and default risk were mostly muted during the Great Moderation period. The global crisis of 2008-9, and especially the on-going Euro crisis, again put to the fore these issues at the time of an unprecedented rise in volatility. A number of issues arise in this context, foremost among them are whether credit rating agency (CRA) rating changes systemically provide markets with new information on the likelihood of sovereign default and how risk pricing responds. Do credit rating agencies have superior information on current or likely future fundamentals and/or provide value by coordinating disparate market views on credit worthiness such that rating changes have an economically important? Has the information value of credit ratings perceived by the markets been diminished since the advent of the global financial crisis (GFC) and their failure to adequately judge default risk of mortgage back securities and other derivative products at that time?

The impact of credit rating changes on sovereign bonds, and the impact on credit default swap (CDS) pricing, seems particularly important in the European context for several reasons. First, the first sovereign default in EU history occurred when Greece defaulted on government bonds in 2012. Prior to the default many public officials and others had expressed frustration that the credit rating agencies (CRAs) and market participants pricing CDS were betting on a Greek default, in their view putting in motion a process driving down bond prices, causing the cost of public funding to rise and creating a self-fulfilling prophesy leading to default. Second, the GIIPS group (Greece-Italy-Ireland-Portugal-Spain), a subset of the EU, all of which participate in the Eurozone, have been particularly affected by credit downgrades, with one or more CRA rating Greece, Portugal, and Ireland to "junk" status since spring 2010. Many officials publically stated that these downgrades accelerated a burgeoning Eurozone sovereign debt crisis and, partly in response to this criticism, several new regulations and rules on CRAs have been put in place¹. A recent EC memo explaining new rules states: "CRAs have a major impact on today's financial markets, with rating actions being closely followed and impacting on investors, borrowers, issuers and governments: e.g. sovereign ratings play a crucial role for the rated country, since a

¹These are commonly referred to as CRA I Regulation and CRA II regulation. New rules were also adopted in early 2013: http://ec.europa.eu/internal_market/securities/agencies/index_en.htm.

downgrading has the immediate effect of making a country's borrowing more expensive.” (European Commission, 2013). Third, there are concerns that the EU, and the Eurozone in particular, is being divided into two distinct groups, one of which whereby sovereign risk is priced fairly and by international norms, and another group (GIIPS), which is subject to “excessive” pricing and sensitivity to economic development, in turn putting at risk the solvency of public finances.²

To address these issues, we investigate how changes in credit ratings and economic factors have influenced CDS spreads in Europe in the context of the recent crisis. Specifically, we use monthly data, January 2005 to August 2012, for 26 EU countries, to evaluate the transmission of credit rating changes on sovereign CDS spreads, while controlling for country-specific and global economic factors, in the context of a dynamic panel model with fixed effects. We examine possible time-varying responses to credit ratings, especially price sensitivity before and after the GFC, and whether pricing responses and pricing dynamics differ between GIIPs and others in the EU. In addition, we explore whether the response of CDS to rating changes depends upon the initial level of credit rating, and hence whether non-linearity and particular threshold points (e.g. investment grade credit rating point) are apparent in the pricing of risk. Finally, we investigate cross-border transmission of credit rating changes from GIIPS to others in the EU, and the degree to which these associations are time dependent and nonlinear.

The focus on Europe allows us to investigate the concern that market pricing of sovereign risk during the crisis may not be justified by economic fundamentals, and whether the association between credit ratings the pricing of sovereign debt is influenced by participation in the Euro Zone. In addition, contrasting the crisis period (and heightened volatility of shocks) with the preceding period of relative market tranquility provides sharper identification of these linkages.

We find that changes in credit ratings are informative, significant economically, and robust, even after controlling for conventional economic fundamentals. Specifically, an upgrade decreases CDS spreads by about 45 basis points, while a one percent rise in the domestic stock price index lowers CDS spreads by 1.5 to 2.0 basis points. World commodity and oil price increases also consistently decrease CDS spreads, likely because world economic conditions are

²This is sometimes referred to in the European context as self-fulfilling “bad” expectations equilibrium (e.g. DeGrauwe and Yi, 2013).

generally strong when these prices are rising. By contrast, a rise in global market uncertainty, proxied by the VIX index, increases domestic CDS spreads. These effects are sizable: a one standard deviation rise in credit ratings lowers CDS spreads by 0.15 of a standard deviation, similar to the effect of a one standard deviation rise in equity prices. Standardized changes in commodity prices, oil prices or the VIX, have smaller effects on CDS spreads. The main result is robust and persistent: credit rating changes have important statistical and economic effects on CDS spreads, even when controlling for a host of domestic and economic variables. However, these responses are not stable over time or consistent across groups. CDS sensitivity to credit rating changes was modest during the pre-crisis period and similar across the GIIPS and other EU countries, but rose markedly during the crisis period, especially in the GIIPS group. Moreover, CDS pricing dynamics changed from moderate to very low persistent between the crisis and non-crisis periods.

As the credit rating scale does not correspond in any rigid way to economic fundamentals, there is no prior reason to expect it to be linked in a linear manner to actual sovereign spreads. Indeed, we find that the association between credit rating changes and spreads follows a complicated non-linear pattern dependent on the level of the credit rating. Applying a non-linear “spline” regression, we find high sensitivity (large change in spreads for a given change in ratings) at the very low end of credit ratings and then a U shape—ratings at the moderately low end (B-) and very high end of credit levels (above A) are fairly insensitive, while middle ratings are quite sensitive to credit rating changes (with the highest sensitivity at the BB+ level—the cutoff between speculative and low investment grade bonds). Although the response is largest in magnitude at the lowest credit rating, this effect appears to emerge mainly during the crisis period when the risk of sovereign default rises and markets price risk more aggressively. Our results are robust to the inclusion of “outlook” and “watch” changes by the credit rating agencies which may precede actual credit rating changes. In addition, contagion from changing the ranking of the GIIPS on other euro countries, initially evident, disappears when own-country credit rating changes are taken into account.

We start with a brief overview of the background literature (section 2) and the data (section 3), continue with the empirical analysis (section 4, with five sub-sections) and close with concluding remarks.

2. Literature Review

The debate about the role and functioning of the credit rating agencies pre-dates the global crisis of 2008-9 and its aftermath. While the great moderation period dampened the intensity of the debate about the efficacy of the credit rating agencies, the global crisis of 2008-9, and the euro crisis since 2010, again put to the fore concerns about the information content of, and the market impact of credit ratings. A fundamental benevolent interpretation of the rating agencies is as aggregators of costly information, ameliorating the market failure induced by costly information, a market failure highlighted by Grossman and Stiglitz (1980)'s seminal paper. This view, however, is challenged by the need to design the proper incentive structure for the rating agencies, needed in order to deliver efficient outcomes. The design of such an incentive system is a non-trivial challenge, and the welfare effects of the rating agencies remains a contestable issue [see Kashyap and Kovrijnykh (2013)].³ Indeed, questions dealing with the economic rationale for the design and the functioning of the rating industry are probably as old as the rating industry itself.

Cantor and Packer (1994) pointed out that although credit ratings provide accurate rank-orderings of default risk, the meaning of specific letter grades varies over time and across agencies. Noting that current regulations do not explicitly adjust for agency differences, the authors argue that a reassessment of the use of ratings and the adequacy of public oversight is overdue. In their follow up paper, Cantor and Packer (1997) noted that regulations incorporate private sector credit ratings to determine investment prohibitions and capital requirements for institutional portfolio investments. These regulations implicitly assume that different agencies have equivalent rating scales, despite the fact that some agencies assign systematically higher ratings than others. They tested whether observed rating differences reflect different rating scales or simply result from sample selection bias, and found only limited evidence of selection bias.

Partnoy (1999) also outlines a legalistic critical view of the role credit rating agencies in providing information about bonds. The "reputational capital" view of credit rating agencies is that the agencies have survived and prospered since the early 1900s based on their ability to accumulate and retain good reputations by providing valuable information about the bonds they rate. Partnoy argues, however, that this view fails to explain, and is inconsistent with, estimation

³ They analyze the optimal compensation schemes for the rating agencies that differ depending on whether a social planner, the firm, or investors order the ratings. They find that rating errors are larger when the firm orders it than when investors do. However, investors ask for ratings inefficiently often. They also show that competition among credit rating agencies causes them to reduce their fees, put in less effort, thus leading to less accurate ratings.

of credit spreads, the number of credit ratings-driven transactions, and the explosion in use of credit derivatives. In place of the reputational capital view, he offers a "regulatory license" view of rating agencies as generating value, not by providing valuable information, but by enabling issuers and investors to satisfy certain regulatory requirements.

The heightened volatility and turbulence associated with the crises during the late 2000s provided new and rich information, propagating insightful research. Alsakka and Gwilym (2010a) analyzed lead-lag relationships in sovereign ratings across five agencies, and finds evidence of interdependence in rating actions. Upgrade (downgrade) probabilities are much higher, and downgrade (upgrade) probabilities are much lower for a sovereign issuer with a recent upgrade (downgrade) by another agency. They find complex intertemporal patterns, where lagged ranking changes by a rating agency tend to impact the future ranking changes of other agencies. S&P tends to demonstrate the least dependence on other agencies, and Moody's tends to be the first mover in upgrades. Rating actions by Japanese agencies tend to lag those of the larger agencies, although there is some evidence that they lead Moody's downgrades. In a paper that focuses on emerging markets, Alsakka and Gwilym (2010b) find that split-rated sovereigns are prone to be upgraded (downgraded) by the agency from whom a lower (higher) rating exists. In particular, they find that the harsher is the split ratings between two agencies, the greater the effect on probabilities of future rating changes. The rating dynamics of Capital Intelligence, Japan Credit Rating Agency and Japan Rating & Investment Information are affected by their rating disagreements with the larger agencies. Only Moody's upgrade decisions are influenced by rating differentials with the smaller agencies.

Some studies applied the event, case study methodology. Ismailescu and Kazemi (2010) studied the effect of sovereign credit rating change announcements on the CDS spreads of the event countries, and their spillover effects on other emerging economies' CDS premiums. They find that positive credit rating events have a greater impact on CDS markets in the two-day period surrounding the event, and are more likely to spill over to other emerging countries. CDS markets anticipate negative events, and previous changes in CDS premiums can be used to estimate the probability of a negative credit event. A generic downside of event analyses is that such studies are not informative regarding the longer term adjustments induced by rating changes. This concern motivates us to focus on a monthly frequency in the empirical part of this paper.

Bergman et al. (2013) consider daily CDS data for GIIPS countries and estimate the effects of EU-wide and national monetary, fiscal and financial stability policy announcements. They find that these announcements have economically important and statistically significant effects on CDS spreads. Lucas et al. (2013) also consider the effects of several EU policy announcements on CDS spreads. They find significant time-variation in distress dependence and spill-over effects for sovereign default risk. The foreign exchange market reaction to of credit ratings has been investigated by Alsakka and Gwilym (2013). They found that rating agencies' signals do affect the own-country exchange rate and propagate spillover effects to other countries' exchange rates in the region. Furthermore, the impact of outlook and watch signals is stronger than the impact of actual rating changes. Market reactions and spillovers are far stronger during the financial crisis period, 2006-2010, than pre-crisis, 2000–2006. They also find differential effects of the various agencies. Negative news from all three major agencies has an impact, whereas only Moody's positive news produces a reaction. Negative news from Fitch tends to have the strongest effect. We will revisit these issues in our analysis, controlling for the possible impact of “outlook” or “watch” signals on future ranking changes.

In terms of the broader literature on sovereign risk and CDS spreads, the crisis of 2008-9 also heralded renewed interest in the area and, perhaps, hitherto underpriced vulnerabilities. Arghyroua and Kontonikasb (2012) focus on the Euro sovereign debt crisis. They find a shift in market pricing behavior. Prior to the global credit crunch (January 1999 – July 2007) they find that markets priced neither macro fundamentals nor the very low at the time international risk factor. Markets, however, apparently changed the pricing mode to one driven by macro-fundamentals and international risk during the crisis period. They also find evidence consistent with contagion, particularly among euro periphery countries. Unlike the early stages of the euro crisis, where contagion was mainly originating from Greece, the latter stages of the euro crisis involved multiple sources of contagion.

Longstaff et al. (2011) find that most of sovereign credit risk appears related to global rather than country-specific factors. In particular, they find that CDS spreads are more closely related to US stock and high-yield markets than to local economic measures. Palladini and Portes (2011) investigate sovereign CDS and bond pricing dynamics in the Eurozone and find that the CDS market moves ahead of the bond market in terms of price discovery.

Aizenman et al. (2013), looking at the euro debt crisis in the context of the pricing of sovereign debt of 50 countries, find a complex and time-varying environment, with a key role of fiscal space in pricing sovereign risk, controlling for other relevant macro variables. A structural break occurred during the turbulent 2008–10 crisis episode -- during the crisis, pricing of risk is largely decoupled from fiscal space measures, and the TED spread (a proxy for market volatility) emerged as a key pricing factor in the crisis. The risk of default in the euro periphery countries group appeared to be somewhat “underpriced” relative to international norms in the period prior to the global financial crisis and substantially “overpriced” countries during and after the crisis, especially in 2010, with actual CDS values much higher than the model predicts given fundamentals.⁴

These results are also in line with Beirne and Fratzscher (2013), who showed that a deterioration in countries' fundamentals and a sharp rise in the sensitivity of financial markets to fundamentals were the main explanations for the rise in sovereign yield spreads and CDS spreads during the crisis, not only for euro area countries but globally. Yet, empirical models with economic fundamentals generally do a poor job in explaining sovereign risk in the pre-crisis period for European economies, suggesting that the market pricing of sovereign risk may not have been fully reflecting fundamentals prior to the crisis.

Against the background of this literature, we turn to evaluate the credit ratings and the pricing of sovereign debt during the Euro crisis.

3. Data and Descriptive Statistics

We use monthly data in our analysis ranging from January 2005 to August 2012 for the longest sample. Daily data on CDS prices taken from Markit⁵ is averaged into monthly values.

⁴ A potential explanation for the switch from under- to over-pricing of default risk is that markets were forward looking, not pricing entirely on current fundamentals but on expected further deterioration in future fundamentals, especially in the realm of fiscal space. Alternatively, the results are consistent with multiple equilibrium with an abrupt switch from a “good” (optimistic) expectations equilibrium in the Euro Area – to a “bad” (pessimistic) expectations equilibrium in these same countries – with high expected default rates and high interest rates where fiscal positions are not sustainable. While concerns about multiple equilibria in the euro zone pre-dated the euro crisis, the developments in the late 2000s sharpened the apprehensions about the fiscal lapses of the euro zone, and focused attention on the incompleteness of the euro project [see Morris and Shinn (2000) for the importance of agents' uncertainty about economic fundamentals and the uncertainty about others' beliefs in explaining susceptibility to multiple equilibria].

⁵ Markit receives contributed CDS data from market makers from their official books and records. According to the company, Markit “cleans” this data, testing it “...for stale, flat curves, outliers and inconsistent data.” If a

The data are five-year on-the-run CDS spreads in USD on sovereign bonds. The quoting convention for CDSs is the annual premium payment as a percentage of the notional amount of the reference obligation. The sovereign CDS spreads are reported in basis points, with a basis point equals to \$1,000 to insure \$10 million of debt.⁶ The description, transformation and source for each of the variables used in the empirical analysis is given the data appendix.

Table 1 provides summary statistics on the CDS spreads for the European countries in our sample, showing country means, medians, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values and the number of observations. The countries in our sample include all of the twenty-seven European Union countries excepting Luxembourg. CDS data is not available for Luxembourg. Table 1 shows the wide divergence in CDS spreads across EU countries, with the low end of the spectrum (in terms of mean, median and standard deviations) represented by Finland and Germany and the high end of the spectrum represented by Greece and, to a much lesser extent, Cyprus and Portugal.⁷ Greece is the only country in the sample to have had a “credit event” (partial or full default) on March 9, 2012 that triggered CDS payments.⁸

Figure 1 shows the evolution of CDS spreads for four groups of countries: EU members, Euro Zone members, EU members that do not participate in the Euro Zone and the GIIPS (Greece, Italy, Ireland, Portugal and Spain). Average values for each group are shown in the figure. The GIIPS countries are dominating the sharp run-up in CDS spreads starting in 2010 for the EU and Euro Area. The average over the full 2005-12 sample for GIIPS was 310 basis points, while only 154 basis points for the Euro Area (83 for the Euro Area less GIIPS) and 134 basis points for the other EU (non-Euro Area). It is noteworthy that the non-Euro countries saw only modest increases over the sample period.

contribution fails any one of these tests, they discard it. Markit states that they ensure superior data quality for an accurate mark-to-market and market surveillance.

⁶ For example, a spread of 197 basis points for a 10-year tenor means that it costs 197,000 USD to insure against 10,000,000 in sovereign debt for 10 years; 1.97% of notional amount needs to be paid each year, so $0.0197 \times 10 \text{ million} = \$197,000$ per year.

⁷ Interestingly, Finland has a lower average CDS spread and standard deviation than Germany. This may reflect the relatively stronger fiscal position of Finland, its successful resolution of a major banking crisis in the early 1990s and the perception that Germany may be politically pressured to provide particularly large amounts to fund EU-wide banking and fiscal bailouts.

⁸The International Swaps and Derivatives Association (ISDA), which determines whether a credit event has occurred, said the use of "collective action clauses (CACs) to amend the terms of Greek law governed bonds issued by The Hellenic Republic such that the right of all holders of the Affected Bonds to receive payments has been reduced." (Reported in Reuters, March 9, 2012).

The credit ratings are taken from Standard and Poor's and Fitch, which apply an ordinal-alphabetic scale reflecting an opinion about credit risk, i.e. the agency's judgment about the ability and willingness of a debtor to meet its obligations in full and on time. For example, Standard and Poor's provide 25 rating categories ranging from "AAA", described as "extremely strong capacity to meet financial commitments," to "D", described as "payment default on financial commitments." In their description of the credit ratings, Standard and Poor' notes that likelihood of default is the single most important factor in their assessment of creditworthiness, but that reasons for ratings adjustments vary, and may be broadly related to overall shifts in the economy or business environment or more narrowly focused on circumstances affecting a specific industry, entity, or individual debt issue, e.g. the creditworthiness of a state or municipality may be impacted by population shifts or lower incomes of taxpayers, which reduce tax receipts and ability to repay debt (Standard and Poor's, 2013). In terms of sovereign ratings, Standard and Poor's states that five factors form the foundation of their sovereign credit analysis: institutional effectiveness and political risks; economic structure and growth prospects; external liquidity and international investment position; fiscal performance and flexibility, as well as debt burden; and monetary flexibility (Standard and Poor's, 2012).

The alphabetic rating scales of the rating agencies together with our numerical rating transformation are given in Table 2. The high end of the rating scale of both Fitch and Standard and Poor's is AAA, and is given the numerical index of 25. Seven countries in the sample - Denmark, Finland, Germany, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Sweden and the U.K.- had the highest rating (AAA) from both credit rating agencies for the entire sample period. The low end of the ratings spectrum is D for Fitch at a numerical rating of 1. DD for Fitch and D for Standard and Poor's (their lowest rating) is numerical rated at 2. In our sample, however, the lowest rated country is Greece, which ranges from A+ (numerical rating 21) for both credit rating agencies in January 2004 to CCC (numerical rating 8) in August 2012. The average rating for Greece over the sample period given by Fitch was 17.29 and given by Standard and Poor's was 16.67.

The rating levels as well as changes in ratings and dates are given in Table 3. The ratings used in the empirical analysis are the average ratings between each of the two numerical scales for Standard Poor's and Fitch. Usually these ratings coincide but not always. For example, Ireland was rated BBB+ by Fitch and A by Standard and Poor's in December 2010, but both agencies rated Ireland BBB+ in August 2012. Greece and Bulgaria had the lowest average

ratings over the sample period. Greece had the largest number of downgrades during the sample period (8), followed by Portugal (5). Bulgaria has only one downgrade as its rating was amongst the lowest for the entire sample period. A number of countries had 4 downgrades over the sample period. Several countries also had upgrades, in some cases on two occasions (Estonia, Slovak Republic, Czech Republic, and Romania).

For illustrative purposes, Figure 2 shows the evolution of CDS spreads in Greece together with vertical lines showing the dates of credit rating downgrades. The Greek CDS data runs until the credit event announcement in March 2012. The announcement of CDS credit downgrades appear to significantly increase Greek CDS spreads. The very high level of CDS in February 2012 in Greece clearly indicated the high expectation of an imminent credit event that would result in CDS payments.

Figure 3 shows a scatter diagram of CDS spreads and credit ratings for the four groups of EU countries—total EU, Euro Zone, GIIPS and EU less Euro Zone. The average CDS spread and credit rating value for each country-month observation for the group is plotted in the figure. A clear negative relationship between the credit rating level and CDS spreads is evident. CDS spreads are much lower for highly rated sovereign bonds, indicating that market pricing is expecting less likelihood of default. The relationship is particular evident for the GIIPS and, to a lesser extent, for the Euro Area. This inverse relation is less strong for the non-Euro Area EU countries. A credit rating of 16 in the GIIPS group appears consistent with two CDS pricing equilibrium, 500 basis points and 2000 basis points. This is consistent with a “two equilibrium” interpretation of broader empirical results discussed below. (The Euro group follows a similar pattern, reflecting the pattern of the GIIPS members).

4. Empirical Results

4.1 Baseline Specification

This section presents our basic empirical results where we test the effect of changes in credit rating changes on changes in CDS spreads, controlling for a host of country-specific and global economic factors. We estimate dynamic panel regressions for 26 EU countries over January 2005-August 2012 using monthly data. We estimate an equation of the form:

$$\Delta CDS_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \Delta CDS_{it-1} + \beta_2 \Delta Credit\ Rating_{it} + \beta_3 (Z_{it}) + \varepsilon_{it}, \quad (1)$$

where ΔCDS_{it} is the change in the credit default swap spread (in basis points), $\Delta Credit Rating_{it}$ is the change in the credit rating scale variable, Z_{it} is a vector of country specific and global control variables, and μ_i indicates country fixed effects.

Given that the error term and lagged dependent variable is correlated by construction, thus introducing biased estimators, we estimate the dynamic model and use the Arellano and Bond (1991) generalized method of moment (GMM) approach. The estimators are obtained from moment equations constructed from further lagged levels of dependent variable and the first-differenced errors. Given the endogeneity problem introduced by the lagged dependent variable, further lags of ΔCDS are used as instruments (the number of lag is determined by $T_i - p - 2$).

The Arellano and Bond (1991) procedure allows the introduction of other endogenous variables. We treat contemporaneous credit rating changes ($\Delta Credit Rating_{it}$) endogenously in our dynamic panel setting, and use its first lag as an instrument. Although the flexibility of GMM estimation in dynamic panel model is favorable, this estimator is designed for datasets with a large number of cross-section units (large N) and few time periods (T). The opposite case (large T, small N) implies a large number of instruments, and may generate an over identification problem. Given that our GMM dynamic panel model results are largely comparable with static panel model, and the persistency in CDS changes is small, we can also utilize the GMM estimators that incorporate the dynamic adjustment in CDS spreads⁹. We report robust standard errors to control for heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation.

We have pre-tested with a number of possible country-specific and global control variables including foreign exchange reserves, inflation, industrial production and unemployment. We only report the control variables that are consistently statistically significant. The main result linking change in credit ratings to change in CDS spreads is robust to every specification of the equation irrespective of the included control variables.

We report the estimates from the baseline formulation of the model in Table 4. A one unit rise in the average credit rating ($\Delta Credit Rating$) decreases CDS spreads within a very narrow range for all of the seven estimated equations, ranging from -42 to -46 basis points. The coefficient estimates are robust to inclusion of various controls, and all are significant at the 5

⁹ The static model estimates are not reported for brevity but are available upon request.

percent level of confidence.¹⁰ The control variables are also statistically significant at the one percent level of confidence with the expected signs. A one percent rise in the domestic stock price index lowers CDS spreads by -1.5 to -2.0 basis points. World commodity and oil price increases also consistently decrease CDS spreads, likely because world economic conditions are generally strong when these prices are rising. By contrast, a rise in the VIX index, reflecting global market uncertainty, generally increases domestic CDS spreads. There is highly significant but low persistence, with the lagged dependent variable coefficient estimates ranging from -0.03 to -0.05. The total observations range from 2338 to 2344 across model specifications.

To get a sense of the relative economic significance of these variables we show the results of standardized variables in Table 5. Table 5 shows the previous results (Table 4) using standardized coefficients (where the data is normalized as unit standard deviations around the mean). The significance levels of the coefficients are not affected by this variable normalization. This procedure indicates that a one standard deviation rise in credit ratings lowers CDS spreads by -0.15 to -0.16 of a standard deviation, not dissimilar to the effect of a one standard deviation rise in equity prices (-0.11 to -0.15). Standardized changes in commodity prices and oil prices have smaller effects on CDS spreads, ranging from -0.07 to -0.12, while the VIX coefficients range from 0.03 to 0.10. Clearly, credit rating changes have economically important effects on CDS spreads, as well as statistically significant, even when controlling for domestic and global economic variables.

4.2 Differential responses over time and across country-groupings

An important issue in the European sovereign debt crisis context is whether CDS pricing has changed over time, or is different across EU countries. To address this issue we consider differential responses over time, i.e. between the tranquil (2005-07) period and global crisis (2008-12) period, and across country groups. The basic model specification for the EU is given in the first panel of Table 6a with the heading “EU, including GIIPS.” This panel shows estimates of the model for the full sample of EU countries, estimated for the pre-crisis and crisis periods. While the model estimates for the global crisis period are virtually identical to the full sample period (-42 point estimate), the estimates are very different for the pre-crisis sample. In particular, a one notch credit rating rise is estimated to have increased CDS spreads by only 1.8

¹⁰ This range of coefficient estimates, -42 to -46, is very close to the -43 to -47 range of estimates in the static panel estimates. The results are robust throughout the various specifications to differences in estimation procedure.

basis points during 2005-07, but by 42.2 basis points during 2008-12. All estimates are statistically significant at the 5% level or higher.

The other panels in Tables 6a and 6b report our investigation of systematic differences in the response of CDS spreads to credit rating changes in particular country groupings, as well as across pre-crisis and crisis periods. The second and third panels of Table 6a consider the Euro Area group (16 countries) and the non-Euro EU group (10 countries), respectively. The coefficient estimates on $\Delta CreditRating$ for the Euro group and non-Euro group indicate low responsiveness of similar orders of magnitude during the pre-crisis period, at -0.62 and -1.93 respectively. (All estimates are statistically significant.) Divergences emerge during the crisis period, however, with responsiveness rising in both groups but to a much larger extent in the Euro Area. In particular, the sensitivity of spreads to credit ratings for the Euro Area (-45.2) is estimated to be four times larger than the non-Euro Area (-11.4) the crisis period. This difference explains the divergence in responsiveness between the two groups also evident in the coefficients estimated for the full sample period.

Table 6b reports a similar exercise but with the GIIPS group excluded from the EU and Euro Area sample of countries in the first and second panels, and model estimates for the GIIPS group separately reported in the third panel. The sensitivity to credit rating changes rise markedly between the pre-crisis and crisis period for every country grouping. The EU and Euro (excluding GIIPS) coefficient estimates for credit ratings are very similar in the crisis period, at -20.2 and -22.7, respectively. This responsiveness is less than half of that of the GIIPS group (-55.0). The lowest sensitivity, however, is that of the non-Euro group (third panel of Table 6a)--the ten countries *not* participating in the Euro area, but members of the EU (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Sweden, United Kingdom). This indicates that the non-Euro EU group responded quite differently than the Euro Area countries to changes in credit ratings.

Two other features of Tables 6a and 6b are noteworthy. First, the estimated degree of persistence in CDS spreads drops markedly from the pre-crisis to crisis periods. The estimated coefficient on the lagged dependent variable for the EU group (Table 6a, first panel) for the pre-crisis sample is 0.43 and virtually zero for the crisis sample. Sharp declines in persistence between the pre-crisis and crisis periods are evident in all of the country-group estimates. (The

smallest decline, from 0.35 to 0.14, is in the non-Euro group). This suggests much more randomness and less predictability of CDS spreads during the crisis. Second, CDS responses to changes in the control variables also shift between the two periods. Generally, domestic stock and global commodity price fluctuations play a much larger role in CDS pricing during the crisis period across the various country groupings. Fluctuations in VIX, by contrast, seem to play a consistent role in CDS pricing across the pre-crisis and crisis samples (positive and significant, with similar estimated magnitudes).

These results indicate that two different pricing mechanisms were at work in the pre-crisis and crisis periods—highly sensitive responses during the crisis period and fairly muted responses during the “tranquil” pre-crisis period. This supports work by Aizenman et al. (2013) and De Grauwe and Ji (2013) and others and may support a “good” (pre-crisis) and “bad” (crisis) equilibrium interpretation of events.

4.3 Nonlinearity

One issue raised in the context of the European sovereign debt crisis is whether the response of market risk perceptions, as reflected in CDS spreads, to credit rating changes might be conditional upon the level of the credit rating. That is, do CDS spreads in countries with lower credit ratings respond more to credit rating downgrades than do spreads in countries with higher credit ratings? We test for these non-linear effects in Table 7. In these specifications we include an interaction term that multiplies the change in the credit rating by the credit rating level ($\Delta CreditRating * RatingLevel$). Combining the two coefficients and the level of credit ratings therefore allows us to test and measure whether the CDS response changes systematically with the level of the credit rating at the time of the downgrade (or upgrade). The specific functional form is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta CDS_{it} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \Delta CDS_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 \Delta CreditRating_{it} + \beta_3 (\Delta CreditRating * RatingLevel)_{it} \\ & + \beta_4 (Z_{it}) + \varepsilon_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The results reported in Table 7 are again statistically significant with the expected signs of the coefficients, and are robust and stable. In particular, the negative term (-282 to -288) on $\Delta CreditRating_{it}$ indicates the fall in CDS spreads for a country with an initial credit rate of zero. The coefficient on $\Delta CreditRating * RatingLevel$, ranging from 14.1 to 14.4, is

interpreted as the marginal effect on the response for a given level of initial credit. The higher the initial credit rating level, the less is the response of credit rating upgrades (downgrades). For example, our estimates (using model 7) suggest that a rise in the credit rating of a country (e.g. Greece) from CCC (8) to CCC+ (9) would result in a reduction in the CDS spread by -170 points ($= -282.51 + 14.23 \cdot 8$), while a rise in credit rating for a country (e.g. Romania) with an initial rating of BBB- (16) to BBB (17) would decrease CDS spreads by -55 points. Clearly, the CDS response of credit rating changes to initially lower rated credits are much stronger than higher rated credits. In addition, the significance levels, signs and magnitudes of all of the control variables in the regressions of Table 7 are virtually identical to Table 4, indicating a set of stable and robust results.

One issue that arises with the specification of our interaction term for the regressions in Table 7 is that the linear specification gives unrealistic estimates once the level of credit ratings reach 20 and beyond (using regression model seven of Table 7). At this point, very small estimated negative effects (the expected effect *a priori*) turn to positive estimated effects of a rating rise. To address this issue, we considered several non-linear functional response forms¹¹, the most promising of which is the piecewise linear regression model using the “spline” functional form¹². The spline function allows several step discrete changes in the response of CDS ratings to credit rating changes. In particular, the effect on CDS spreads from a one unit rise in credit ratings may generally be declining the higher is the level of the credit rating, but there may also be several distinct threshold points (knots) where the marginal changes shift.

Spline estimation requires selection of the number of knots as well as the threshold points (placement of knots). As an initial starting point to begin the estimation we chose two knots since the country ratings are located mainly in three regions, namely As, Bs and Cs.¹³ In order to find optimal location of these knots, we follow a two-stage procedure. First, we regress rating changes on level of rating by arbitrarily choosing initial knots of rating cut-offs 19 (A- and above) and 10 (B- and above), which gives the following equation:

$$\Delta CDS_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Rating_{it} + \beta_2 d_1(Rating_{it} - 10) + \beta_3 d_2(Rating_{it} - 19) + \varepsilon_{it}. \quad (3)$$

¹¹ We also considered $\Delta CreditRating$ squared to capture non-linear effects and different effects for each level of credit rating. These results are omitted for brevity but are available from the authors upon request.

¹² See Green (2012; pages 158-160) for an excellent discussion of this technique.

¹³ We also extended the work to three knots. The third knot threshold was not statistically significant.

Second, using the initial parameters and knot values, we implement a non-linear optimization for spline placement.¹⁴ The non-linear estimation of the model is an iterative, grid search process, where the residuals sum of squares at each combination of parameter values are evaluated to determine the set of parameter values producing the lowest residual sum of squares.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta CDS_{it} = & \{\alpha_0\} + \{\alpha_1\}Rating_{it} + \{\alpha_2\} \max(Rating_{it} - \{k_1 = x_1\}, 0) \\ & + \{\alpha_3\} \max(Rating_{it} - \{k_2 = x_2\}, 0) + \epsilon_{it}, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where the initial values for each alpha are corresponding betas from first equation. For knot placement, we again start with initial values of 10 and 19 for x_1 and x_2 . We have also tried different initial values for knot placement at both first and second equation. The estimation results from second model gives $k_1=8.65$ (between CCC and CCC+) and $k_2=14.5$ (between BB and BB+). Finally, using these two knot placements, we estimate the fixed effect model involving the interaction of rating changes and rating level that we call spline estimation in equation (5).

The spline function estimated and presented in the tables is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta CDS_{it} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \Delta CDS_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 \Delta CreditRating_{it} + \beta_3 (\Delta CreditRating * RatingLevel)_{it} \\ & + \beta_4 d_1 \Delta CreditRating_{it} (Rating_{it} - 8.65) \\ & + \beta_5 d_2 \Delta CreditRating_{it} (Rating_{it} - 14.5) + \beta_6 (Z_{it}) + \epsilon_{it}, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where $d_1 = 1$ if rating ≥ 8.65 , zero otherwise; and $d_2 = 1$ if rating ≥ 14.5 , zero otherwise.

We report the spline function form in Table 8 and graph the estimated responses for each credit level for the full period in Figures 4a and 4b.

Figure 4a indicates that the response to a credit rate change is very large at the lowest credit ratings in our sample, with an estimated CDS response of -150 basis points associated when a credit rating of CCC- (scale 7) is upgraded to CCC (scale 8). However, the CDS response becomes much less sensitive (less negative) at somewhat higher ratings, implausibly positive in the 9-11 basis point range, and then gradually increasing. The shift from large negative to

¹⁴ We use nl command in Stata to implement nonlinear estimation. The nl estimation fits the non-linear function by least squares using the alternative iterative methods including gradient method, Newton and Marquardt method, etc. For further details on non-linear estimation implemented, see Davidson and McKinnon (2004, ch.6).

slightly positive is probably due to the large role played by Greece at the low end of the spectrum, making the results fragile in this range. The relevant range of credit ratings, excluding the low end of the range only occupied by Greece during our sample period, is shown in Figure 4b. This figure shows insensitivity of response at a B+ rating (scale of 12), reaching at maximum negative point of around -40 basis points at a BB+ credit rating (scale of 15) and gradually becoming less sensitive for higher credit ratings. A credit rating rise from AA- (22), for example, results in almost no change in CDS spread. The local maximum (-40) estimated at the BB+ rating may be attributable to the fact that this level represent the cutoff point between high speculative grade (BB+) and low investment grade (BBB-) bond ratings. Regulatory restrictions on portfolios, or portfolio habitat preference, may make this threshold points especially important for risk assessment and pricing of bonds.

4.4 Outlook and Watch Changes

Our general objective in this research paper is to evaluate the information value provided by credit rating agencies in the market pricing of sovereign default risk. As in any asset market, only “surprise” or unanticipated credit rating changes, which are also valued by the market, should impact CDS spreads. In addition to credit ratings, however, credit rating agencies also provide signals about the possibility of future credit rating changes. These signals, for S&P credit rating agencies (the other CRAs have similar designations), take the form of either “outlook” or “watch” designations. The outlook and watch designations may be positive, negative, stable or developing (explained as uncertain as to whether the change may be positive or negative) in terms of the likelihood of a future ratings changes. The outlook horizon is defined by S&P as six to twenty-four months ahead, and the watch horizon is within three months.

Our estimates of the effect of credit rating changes on CDS spreads may be bias downwards to the extent that an actual credit rating change incorporates an expected component (signaled previously by a outlook or watch change) and an unexpected component. In principal, only the unexpected component presumably would affect CDS spreads. Since actual credit rating changes include both components, the net effect would be the average of expected and unexpected, and tend to bias downwards the estimated effect.

We include changes in outlook or watch signals from S&P and Fitch in our basic regressions in order to control for this potential source of bias. These results are reported in Table 9. Various

specifications of the basic model are reported and the results are robust to the different forms. In particular, a negative change in a signal (from stable to negative, or from positive to stable) raises CDS spreads by 15-25 basis points, while a positive change in the signal (from steady to positive or negative to steady) has no measurable impact. Most important for the purposes of our study, however, is that the effect of credit rating changes on CDS spreads does not change when changes in the signals are included in the regression (the point estimates remain in the -41 to -43 range and are significant at the five percent level of confidence).

4.5 Contagion

An issue that frequently arises in the context of the European sovereign debt crisis is to what extent might there be contagion from the GIIPS group to other countries in the EU. Several recent papers have addressed the issue of contagion using CDS spreads or sovereign yields (e.g. Beirne and Fratzscher, 2013).¹⁵ We are concerned in this section, by contrast, with the transmission of changes in credit ratings in the GIIPS area with changes in CDS spreads in other areas outside of GIIPS. We measure GIIPS rating changes in two ways. The first method (“Aggregate GIIPS Rating Index”) measures the sum of the GIIPS rating changes in a given month, e.g. in a given month, if three of the GIIPS countries are downgraded one notch, one GIIPS country is downgraded by two notches, and one country is not downgraded, then the indicator would register a five notch change. The second method (“Maximum GIIPS Rating Index”) measures the maximum of the changes in GIIPS, e.g. if during a given month, one country was downgraded by two notches, and the others by one notch, then the indicator would register a two notch change.

The results are shown in Table 10. The results on the Euro Area (less GIIPS) are given in columns (1)-(2) for the aggregate method and (5)-(6) for the maximum method. The results for transmission from GIIPS credit rating changes to the non-Euro EU group are given in columns (3)-(4) for the aggregate method, and in columns (7)-(8) for the maximum method.

¹⁵ A number of studies have considered various aspects of contagion. For example, Mink and De Haan (2013) consider how Greece “news” during the crisis in 2010 transmitted to 48 banks in Greece and elsewhere in Europe. Beetsma et al. (2013) explore co-movements among interest spreads vis-à-vis Germany on European public debt and spillovers in response to macroeconomic and financial news. They investigate both how “news” affected domestic interest spreads and how it was propagated to other countries during the recent crisis period, thereby distinguishing between the so-called GIIPS countries (Greece, Italy, Ireland, Portugal and Spain) and other European countries.

Both measurement methods give consistent results. There is initially evidence of contagion from GIIPS to other countries in the Euro Area, but this effect disappears when own-country credit rating changes are taken into account. Evidence of contagion from GIIPS rating changes to CDS spreads in the non-Euro group is even weaker—no significant transmission is found regardless of the specification of the model or measurement of GIIPS index rating. This evidence indicates that concerns about contagion from the GIIPS to other countries in the EU may be exaggerated.

5. Conclusion

Risk assessments on sovereign bonds by credit rating agencies are a systematically important determinant of credit default swap spreads in the EU. Credit rating agencies play an important role in the pricing of sovereign risk—rating changes are informative, significant economically, and the marginal information value is robust to controlling for conventional economic fundamentals.

However, our paper reveals a complex and time varying association between credit ratings and the pricing of sovereign debt during the Euro crisis. The association between credit rating changes and CDS spreads shifts between the pre-crisis and crisis periods. European countries had quite similar CDS responses to credit rating changes during the pre-crisis period, but large differences emerged during the crisis period between the now highly-sensitive GIIPS group and other European country groupings (EU and Euro Area excluding GIIPS, and the non-EU area). The response is largest in magnitude at the lowest credit rating but these effects appear to emerge mainly during the crisis period when the risk of sovereign default rises and markets price risk more aggressively.

The association between credit rating changes and CDS spreads appears to follow a complicated non-linear pattern dependent on the level of the credit rating. Applying a non-linear “spline” regression, we find high sensitivity (large change in spreads for a given change in ratings) at the very low end of credit ratings and then a U shape—ratings at the moderately low end and very high end of credit levels are fairly insensitive, while middle ratings are quite sensitive to credit rating changes. The threshold where sovereign bond ratings climb from speculative to low investment grade status appears particularly sensitive, perhaps because of regulatory or preferred portfolio habitat considerations.

On the other hand, we do not find contagion from GIIPS credit downgrades to CDS spreads in other Euro Area countries once own-country credit rating changes are taken into account. This result suggests that fears of contagion may be exaggerated. Market pricing of sovereign default risk is determined by a host of domestic and global macroeconomic factors, including the country's own CRA ratings, and these linkages may vary over time and have non-linear elements. But contagion from GIIPS CRA ratings to market pricing of risk in other EU member countries does not appear to be a critical factor.

The heightened sensitivity of markets to news and credit rating changes during the sovereign debt crisis episode in Europe, particularly among the GIIPS, and evidence of especially large responses when credit ratings are already at low levels, suggests a shift in the underlying market pricing of sovereign default risk. These results are consistent with multiple equilibrium in market pricing of sovereign default risk and raises questions about the consistency between market perceptions of risk and assessments made by credit rating agencies. However, this may not be a "pure" multiple equilibrium explanation with the economy alternating randomly between "good" and "bad" states, but rather may contain an element of "rational inattention" by investors. In the first years of EMU investors may not have focused on fundamental asymmetries and weakness in the system that, combined with major economic shocks such as the global financial crisis, could lead to sharply increased risk of sovereign default. Once markets focus on these risks, it may be difficult to return to financial market tranquility without fundamental changes in EU institutions and fiscal conditions among EMU member states.

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Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Sovereign Credit Default Swap Spreads

	Mean	Median	SD	Minimum	Maximum	N
<i>Euro Area</i>						
Austria	57.82	53.23	62.50	1.61	205.09	92
Belgium	76.32	34.03	91.48	2.05	326.52	92
Cyprus	242.76	65.08	418.86	5.70	1577.84	91
Estonia	122.37	94.87	149.45	3.93	686.72	92
Finland	24.40	19.59	24.92	1.15	83.63	92
France	50.17	23.22	62.26	1.52	211.76	92
Germany	28.82	21.26	30.45	1.38	102.02	92
Greece	812.25	52.76	2019.63	5.05	10633.20	86
Ireland	220.77	102.63	276.82	1.88	986.28	92
Italy	125.60	69.53	152.25	5.76	536.11	92
Malta	111.38	71.95	127.27	4.86	417.17	91
Netherlands	37.93	32.63	38.10	1.15	121.42	83
Portugal	262.29	53.72	396.86	4.11	1323.36	92
Slovak Republic	76.29	61.38	81.35	5.67	295.33	92
Slovenia	86.67	55.55	119.74	3.57	475.97	92
Spain	129.00	65.38	158.19	2.43	582.52	92
<i>Other EU, Non-Euro</i>						
Bulgaria	186.09	198.40	151.35	13.73	610.25	92
Czech Republic	66.30	70.66	62.66	4.96	302.21	92
Denmark	36.79	30.61	42.27	1.27	131.85	92
Hungary	214.17	187.52	189.60	12.19	642.22	92
Latvia	247.60	224.02	251.82	5.63	1038.80	92
Lithuania	187.92	201.09	183.16	5.90	766.59	92
Poland	104.16	99.48	91.17	7.98	362.81	92
Romania	215.62	221.41	174.26	17.22	712.40	92
Sweden	29.04	24.25	31.06	1.31	129.36	92
United Kingdom	48.25	57.99	38.03	1.25	143.73	77

Notes: The table reports summary statistics of monthly average for five-year sovereign CDS contracts for the January 2005 to August 2012 period. CDS spreads are measured in basis points.

Table 2: Linear Scaling of Credit Ratings

Fitch Ratings	S&P Ratings	Numerical Scale
AAA	AAA	25
AA+	AA+	24
AA	AA	23
AA-	AA-	22
A+	A+	21
A	A	20
A-	A-	19
BBB+	BBB+	18
BBB	BBB	17
BBB-	BBB-	16
BB+	BB+	15
BB	BB	14
BB-	BB-	13
B+	B+	12
B	B	11
B-	B-	10
CCC+	CCC+	9
CCC	CCC	8
CCC-	CCC-	7
CC	CC	6
C	-	5
RD	R	4
DDD	SD	3
DD	D	2
D		1

Source: Fitch and Standard and Poor's websites, and authors' calculations.

Table 3: Average Sovereign Ratings, Downgrades and Upgrades

	Average Ratings		Number of Downgrades		Number of Upgrades	
	Fitch	S&P	Fitch	S&P	Fitch	S&P
Austria	25.00	24.91	-	1	-	-
Belgium	23.74	23.89	1	1	1	-
Cyprus	20.75	19.68	4	6	1	1
Estonia	19.76	20.17	2	1	2	2
Finland	25.00	25.00	-	-	-	-
France	25.00	24.91	-	1	-	-
Germany	25.00	25.00	-	-	-	-
Greece	17.29	16.67	8	8	1	1
Ireland	22.88	22.98	4	6	-	-
Italy	21.93	20.92	3	3	-	-
Luxembourg	25.00	25.00	-	-	-	-
Malta	20.67	19.91	-	1	1	-
Netherlands	25.00	25.00	-	-	-	-
Portugal	21.39	20.18	5	5	-	-
Slovak R.	20.45	20.29	-	1	2	2
Slovenia	22.49	22.61	3	3	1	1
Spain	24.18	23.80	4	5	-	-
Bulgaria	16.42	17.16	1	1	1	2
Czech R.	20.51	19.92	-	-	2	2
Denmark	25.00	25.00	-	-	-	-
Hungary	17.30	17.13	4	4	-	-
Latvia	17.08	16.70	4	5	1	2
Lithuania	18.33	18.30	3	3	1	1
Poland	18.74	18.72	-	-	1	1
Romania	15.95	15.40	1	1	2	1
Sweden	25.00	25.00	-	-	-	-
UK	25.00	25.00	-	-	-	-

Source: Fitch and Standard and Poor's websites, and authors' calculations.

Table 4: CDS Spreads and Credit Ratings

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Δ CDS (t-1)	0.05** (0.02)	0.05** (0.02)	0.04** (0.02)	0.04** (0.02)	0.04** (0.01)	0.03*** (0.01)	0.04*** (0.02)
Δ Credit Rating	-45.87** (19.87)	-43.07** (18.94)	-45.12** (19.74)	-43.55** (19.77)	-43.80** (19.65)	-43.85** (19.63)	-42.54** (18.97)
Δ Stock Prices		-1.96*** (0.57)					-1.47*** (0.53)
Δ Commodity			-1.66*** (0.32)		-1.31*** (0.22)		-0.94*** (0.22)
VIX				1.09*** (0.28)	0.70*** (0.22)	0.79*** (0.29)	0.37** (0.16)
Δ Oil Price						-0.93*** (0.16)	
Constant	5.50* (3.27)	4.75 (2.99)	6.91** (3.49)	-18.16*** (3.04)	-8.50*** (1.53)	-10.70*** (3.33)	-2.32 (2.04)
Observations	2,344	2,338	2,344	2,344	2,344	2,344	2,338
# of Countries	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Wald chi-squared	186	860	306	289	315	289	1131

Notes: GMM Arellano-Bond dynamic panel estimates with Δ CreditRating as an endogenous variable. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Robust standard errors reported.

Table 5: CDS Spreads and Credit Ratings: Standardized Coefficients

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Δ CDS (t-1)	0.04* (0.02)	0.04** (0.02)	0.04** (0.02)	0.03* (0.02)	0.03** (0.02)	0.03** (0.01)	0.04** (0.02)
Δ Credit Rating	-0.16** (0.07)	-0.15** (0.06)	-0.15** (0.07)	-0.15** (0.07)	-0.15** (0.07)	-0.15** (0.07)	-0.15** (0.06)
Δ Stock Prices		-0.15*** (0.04)					-0.11*** (0.04)
Δ Commodity			-0.12*** (0.02)		-0.10*** (0.02)		-0.07*** (0.02)
VIX				0.10*** (0.03)	0.06*** (0.02)	0.07*** (0.03)	0.03** (0.01)
Δ Oil Price						-0.08*** (0.01)	
Observations	2,302	2,298	2,302	2,302	2,302	2,302	2,298
# of Countries	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Wald chi-squared	160.1	699.8	264.1	239.7	261.5	235.6	901.3

Notes: GMM Arellano-Bond dynamic panel estimates with Δ CreditRating as an endogenous variable. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Robust standard errors reported.

Table 6a: Regional Groups and Sub-samples --EU and Euro Area Including GIIPS

	EU (including GIIPS)			EURO (including GIIPS)			Non-Euro		
	Pre-Crisis: 2005-2007 (1)	Global Crisis: 2008-2012 (2)	Full Sample: 2005-2012 (3)	Pre-Crisis: 2005-2007 (1)	Global Crisis: 2008-2012 (2)	Full Sample: 2005-2012 (3)	Pre-Crisis: 2005-2007 (1)	Global Crisis: 2008-2012 (2)	Full Sample: 2005-2012 (3)
Δ CDS (t-1)	0.43*** (0.16)	0.01 (0.02)	0.04*** (0.02)	0.73*** (0.22)	0.01 (0.01)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.35** (0.17)	0.14*** (0.03)	0.17*** (0.02)
Δ Credit Rating	-1.77** (0.70)	-42.16*** (15.52)	-42.54** (18.97)	-0.62*** (0.23)	-45.15** (17.61)	-48.83** (21.95)	-1.93* (1.11)	-11.41* (6.42)	-7.33* (4.05)
Δ Stock Prices	-0.02 (0.01)	-1.56*** (0.59)	-1.47*** (0.53)	-0.01 (0.01)	-1.80** (0.74)	-1.72** (0.76)	-0.02 (0.02)	-1.32 (0.86)	-1.19* (0.66)
Δ Commodity	-0.04*** (0.01)	-1.30*** (0.38)	-0.94*** (0.22)	-0.01 (0.01)	-1.11*** (0.39)	-0.79*** (0.20)	-0.09*** (0.03)	-1.46** (0.62)	-1.16*** (0.43)
VIX	0.30*** (0.07)	0.28** (0.13)	0.37** (0.16)	0.15*** (0.02)	0.14 (0.11)	0.36 (0.23)	0.52*** (0.15)	0.54* (0.32)	0.34 (0.23)
Constant	-3.84*** (0.90)	-0.75 (7.28)	-2.32 (2.04)	-1.92*** (0.30)	6.39 (9.14)	-0.27 (1.55)	-6.74*** (1.99)	-13.46* (7.67)	-5.12 (4.70)
Observations	888	1,450	2,338	556	890	1,446	332	560	892
# of Countries	26	26	26	16	16	16	10	10	10
Wald chi-squared	77.49	306.8	1131	79.43	209.1	2176	56.45	1077	1031

Notes: GMM Arellano-Bond dynamic panel estimates with Δ CreditRating as an endogenous variable. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Robust standard errors reported.

Table 6b: Regional Groups and Sub-samples: EU and Euro Area Excluding GIIPS

	EU -- excluding GIIPS			EURO -- excluding GIIPS			GIIPS		
	Pre-Crisis: 2005-2007 (1)	Global Crisis: 2008-2012 (2)	Full Sample: 2005-2012 (3)	Pre-Crisis: 2005-2007 (1)	Global Crisis: 2008-2012 (2)	Full Sample: 2005-2012 (3)	Pre-Crisis: 2005-2007 (1)	Global Crisis: 2008-2012 (2)	Full Sample: 2005-2012 (3)
Δ CDS (t-1)	0.43*** (0.16)	0.19*** (0.02)	0.21*** (0.02)	0.79*** (0.26)	0.27*** (0.02)	0.28*** (0.02)	0.51*** (0.07)	0.01* (0.00)	0.03*** (0.00)
Δ Credit Rating	-1.84** (0.76)	-20.27** (8.42)	-15.54** (6.98)	-0.45 (0.32)	-22.70** (11.54)	-19.79* (10.39)	-0.79** (0.37)	-55.02** (21.59)	-60.95** (26.46)
Δ Stock Prices	-0.02 (0.01)	-1.11** (0.46)	-0.98*** (0.34)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.80*** (0.27)	-0.71*** (0.20)	0.00 (0.01)	-4.19*** (1.26)	-4.41*** (1.50)
Δ Commodity	-0.05*** (0.02)	-0.97*** (0.32)	-0.78*** (0.21)	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.59*** (0.20)	-0.48*** (0.14)	-0.00 (0.01)	-2.18* (1.15)	-1.34** (0.53)
VIX	0.32*** (0.08)	0.28** (0.12)	0.18* (0.10)	0.13*** (0.03)	0.12*** (0.04)	0.08** (0.04)	0.20*** (0.03)	-0.25 (0.26)	0.50 (0.67)
Constant	-4.10*** (1.09)	-6.36** (2.92)	-1.79 (2.10)	-1.72*** (0.40)	-1.49 (1.22)	0.22 (0.61)	-2.58*** (0.39)	30.38 (24.46)	4.04 (3.37)
Observations	708	1,176	1,884	376	616	992	180	274	454
# of Countries	21	21	21	11	11	11	5	5	5
Wald chi-squared	66.06	2513	2319	36.33	9616	10827	3457	128.4	9.16E+11

Notes: GMM Arellano-Bond dynamic panel estimates with Δ CreditRating as an endogenous variable. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Robust standard errors reported.

Table 7: CDS Spreads and Credit Ratings with Interaction Effects

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Δ CDS (t-1)	0.05** (0.02)	0.05*** (0.02)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.04** (0.01)	0.04*** (0.01)	0.03*** (0.01)	0.04*** (0.01)
Δ Credit Rating	-286.88*** (36.65)	-281.70*** (36.37)	-285.41*** (38.34)	-287.58*** (38.88)	-286.23*** (39.55)	-285.21*** (40.80)	-282.51*** (38.40)
Δ Credit Rating*Crdt Level	14.29*** (2.40)	14.14*** (2.42)	14.25*** (2.51)	14.48*** (2.56)	14.38*** (2.60)	14.32*** (2.67)	14.23*** (2.55)
Δ Stock Prices		-1.92*** (0.54)					-1.39*** (0.46)
Δ Commodity			-1.65*** (0.34)		-1.26*** (0.21)		-0.91*** (0.22)
VIX				1.15*** (0.35)	0.77*** (0.30)	0.88** (0.38)	0.46* (0.23)
Δ Oil Price						-0.84*** (0.18)	
Constant	5.48* (3.32)	4.73 (3.04)	6.88* (3.56)	-19.44*** (4.49)	-10.17*** (3.12)	-12.70** (5.15)	-4.25* (2.36)
Observations	2,344	2,338	2,344	2,344	2,344	2,344	2,338
# of Countries	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Wald chi-squared	1200	3064	1067	1080	912.5	808.2	2201

Notes: GMM Arellano-Bond dynamic panel estimates with Δ CreditRating and interaction terms as an endogenous variable. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Robust standard errors reported.

Table 8: CDS Spreads and Credit Ratings: Spline Function

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Δ CDS (t-1)	0.08*** (0.02)	0.07*** (0.02)	0.07*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)	0.07*** (0.01)
Δ Credit Rating	-1,020.07*** (5.78)	-1,010.89*** (6.71)	-1,027.76*** (4.66)	-1,013.95*** (5.39)	-1,022.32*** (4.97)	-1,015.74*** (5.07)	-1,015.92*** (5.23)
Δ Rating*scale	124.00*** (0.95)	123.08*** (0.96)	125.14*** (0.84)	122.87*** (0.95)	124.20*** (0.90)	123.15*** (0.91)	123.62*** (0.83)
d_1 * Δ Rating*(scale-8.65)	-141.12*** (2.49)	-139.76*** (2.30)	-142.15*** (2.91)	-138.72*** (2.90)	-140.42*** (3.09)	-138.75*** (3.06)	-139.89*** (2.72)
d_2 * Δ Rating*(scale-14.49)	23.04*** (3.35)	22.28*** (3.31)	22.43*** (3.78)	21.54*** (3.75)	21.61*** (3.97)	20.73*** (4.04)	21.59*** (3.76)
Δ Stock Prices		-1.90*** (0.52)					-1.36*** (0.44)
Δ Commodity			-1.73*** (0.41)		-1.38*** (0.30)		-1.04*** (0.27)
VIX				1.12*** (0.32)	0.71*** (0.23)	0.83** (0.33)	0.40** (0.19)
Δ Oil Price						-0.92*** (0.15)	
Constant	5.35* (3.22)	4.62 (2.95)	6.83* (3.52)	-18.96*** (3.98)	-8.82*** (1.86)	-11.60*** (4.10)	-3.05 (1.89)
Observations	2,344	2,338	2,344	2,344	2,344	2,344	2,338
# of Countries	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Wald chi-squared	4.27E+07	1.50E+13	3.77E+07	1.16E+13	1.25E+07	4.65E+13	2.45E+07

Notes: GMM Arellano-Bond dynamic panel estimates with Δ CreditRating and interaction terms as an endogenous variable. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Robust standard errors reported.

Table 9: CDS Spreads, Credit Ratings, Outlook/Watch

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Δ CDS (t-1)	0.05** (0.02)	0.05** (0.02)	0.05** (0.02)	0.04*** (0.02)	0.04*** (0.02)	0.04*** (0.02)
Δ Credit Rating				-42.93** (19.11)	-40.81** (18.32)	-41.24** (18.51)
Δ Positive Outlook/Watch	-2.46 (4.23)		-2.06 (3.97)	-10.93 (8.01)		-10.36 (7.92)
Δ Negative Outlook/Watch		25.09** (11.28)	25.08** (11.29)		15.32*** (5.41)	15.17*** (5.33)
Δ Stock Prices	-1.53*** (0.57)	-1.54*** (0.57)	-1.54*** (0.57)	-1.46*** (0.53)	-1.47*** (0.53)	-1.47*** (0.53)
Δ Commodity	-0.91*** (0.22)	-0.91*** (0.22)	-0.91*** (0.22)	-0.94*** (0.21)	-0.94*** (0.21)	-0.94*** (0.21)
VIX	0.46** (0.19)	0.42** (0.17)	0.42** (0.17)	0.37** (0.16)	0.35** (0.15)	0.35** (0.15)
Constant	-2.68 (2.44)	-3.16 (2.31)	-3.14 (2.33)	-2.08 (2.10)	-2.60 (2.03)	-2.36 (2.09)
Observations	2,338	2,338	2,338	2,338	2,338	2,338
# of Countries	26	26	26	26	26	26
Wald chi-squared	637.1	579.4	641.5	1363	991.9	1245

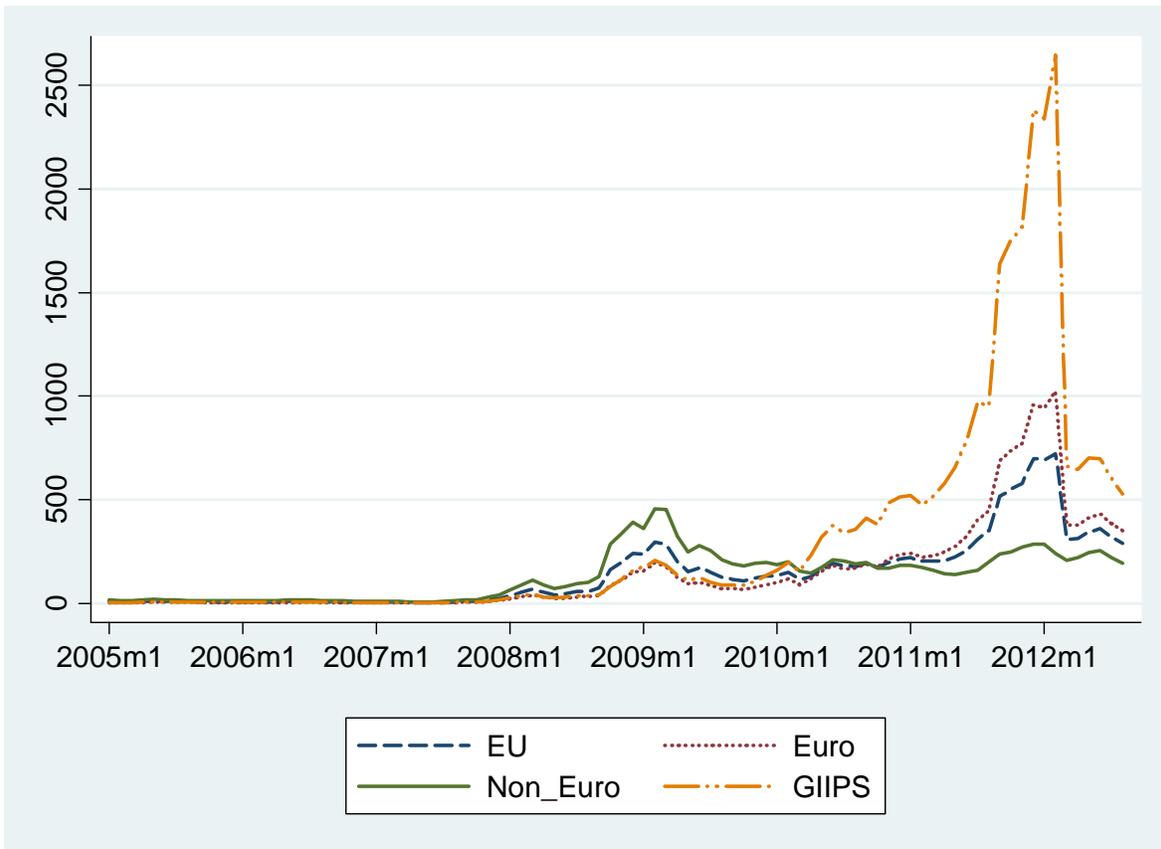
Notes: GMM Arellano-Bond dynamic panel estimates with Δ CreditRating as an endogenous variable. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Robust standard errors reported.

Table 10: Contagion –Effects of GIIPS Rating Changes on Euro and Non-Euro Countries

	Aggregate GIIPS Rating Index				Maximum GIIPS Rating Index			
	Effect on Euro EU		Effect on Non-Euro EU		Effect on Euro EU		Effect on Non-Euro EU	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Δ CDS (t-1)	0.30*** (0.03)	0.28*** (0.02)	0.18*** (0.02)	0.17*** (0.02)	0.30*** (0.03)	0.28*** (0.02)	0.18*** (0.02)	0.17*** (0.02)
Δ GIIPS Credit Rating	-0.61*** (0.23)	-0.03 (0.35)	0.11 (0.51)	0.11 (0.49)	-0.84** (0.33)	-0.42 (0.26)	-0.23 (0.43)	-0.23 (0.42)
Δ Credit Rating		-19.74* (10.81)		-7.33* (4.04)		-19.53* (10.44)		-7.32* (4.06)
Δ Stock Prices	-0.77*** (0.16)	-0.71*** (0.21)	-1.20* (0.66)	-1.19* (0.66)	-0.77*** (0.16)	-0.72*** (0.20)	-1.20* (0.66)	-1.19* (0.66)
Δ Commodity	-0.49*** (0.15)	-0.48*** (0.14)	-1.16*** (0.41)	-1.15*** (0.41)	-0.49*** (0.15)	-0.50*** (0.14)	-1.17*** (0.42)	-1.16*** (0.42)
VIX	0.06 (0.03)	0.08* (0.04)	0.37 (0.24)	0.34 (0.24)	0.06* (0.03)	0.08* (0.04)	0.36 (0.23)	0.33 (0.23)
Constant	0.55 (1.00)	0.21 (0.60)	-5.65 (4.61)	-5.10 (4.66)	0.50 (0.99)	0.14 (0.60)	-5.70 (4.61)	-5.15 (4.66)
Observations	992	992	892	892	992	992	892	892
# of Countries	11	11	10	10	11	11	10	10
Wald chi-squared	5517	10933	673.1	1130	6952	13225	668.2	1054

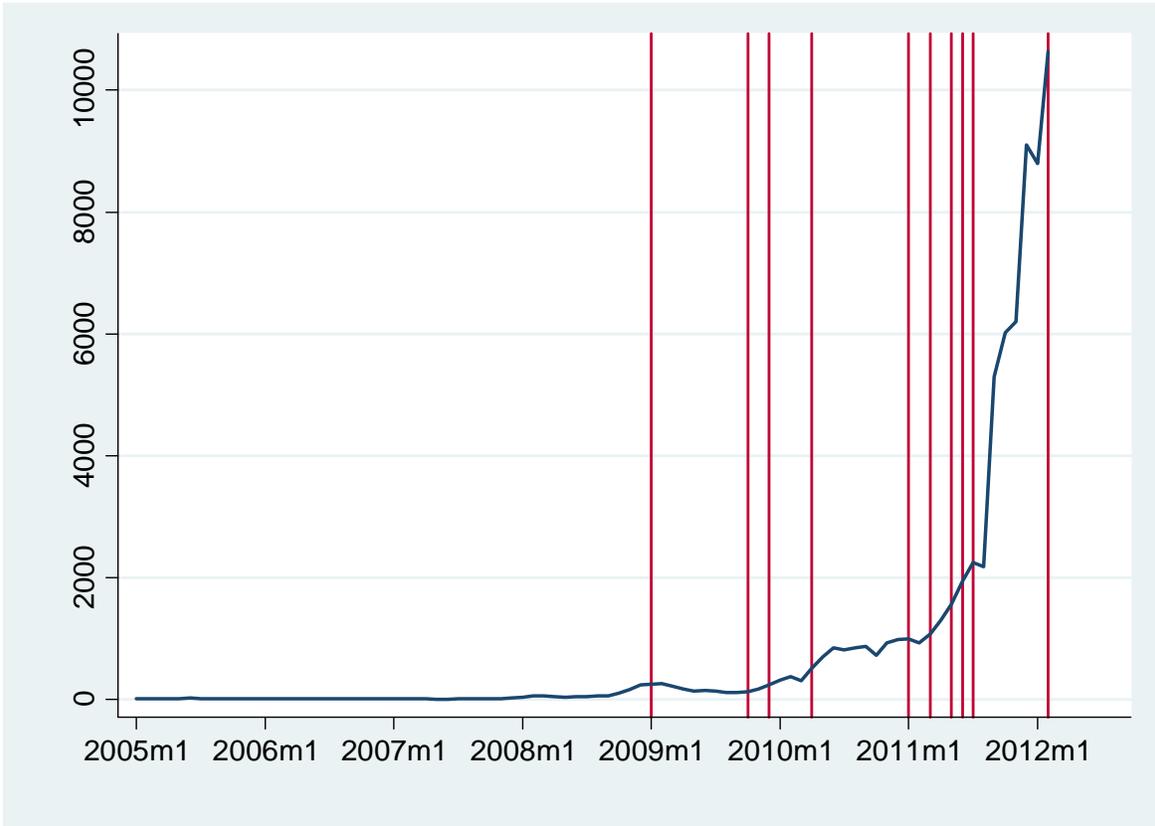
Notes: GMM Arellano-Bond dynamic panel estimates with Δ CreditRating as an endogenous variable. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Robust standard errors reported.

Figure 1: CDS Spreads: EU, Euro, Non-Euro (EU) and GIIPS



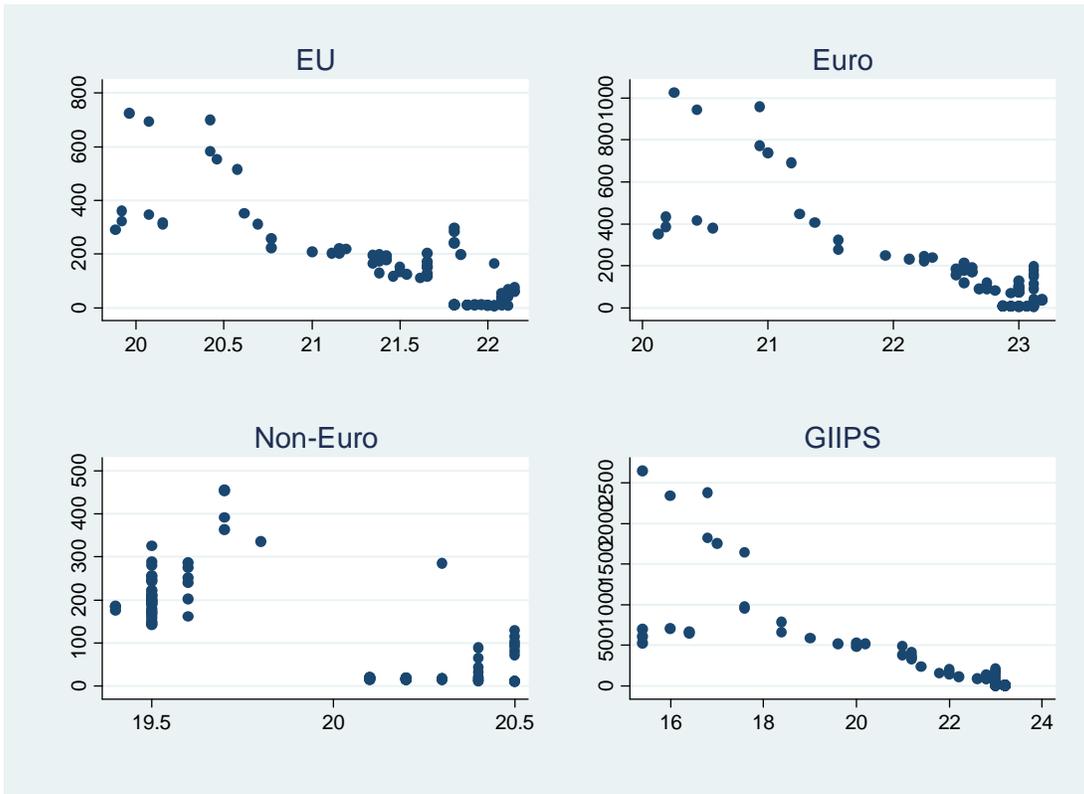
Notes: CDS spreads for Greece is not available after February 2012; therefore decline in average CDS is mainly due to Greek not being included in average.

Figure 2: Greek CDS Spreads and Credit Rating Downgrades



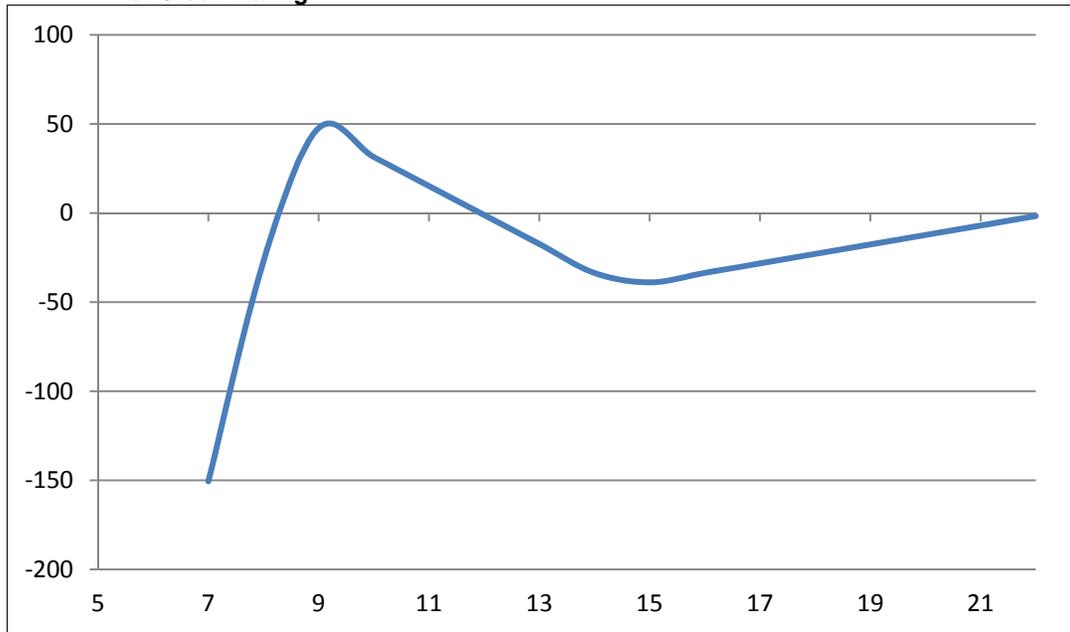
Notes: CDS spreads for Greece is not available after February 2012. Vertical lines indicate S&P and Fitch dates of downgrades.

Figure 3: CDS Spreads and Credit Ratings



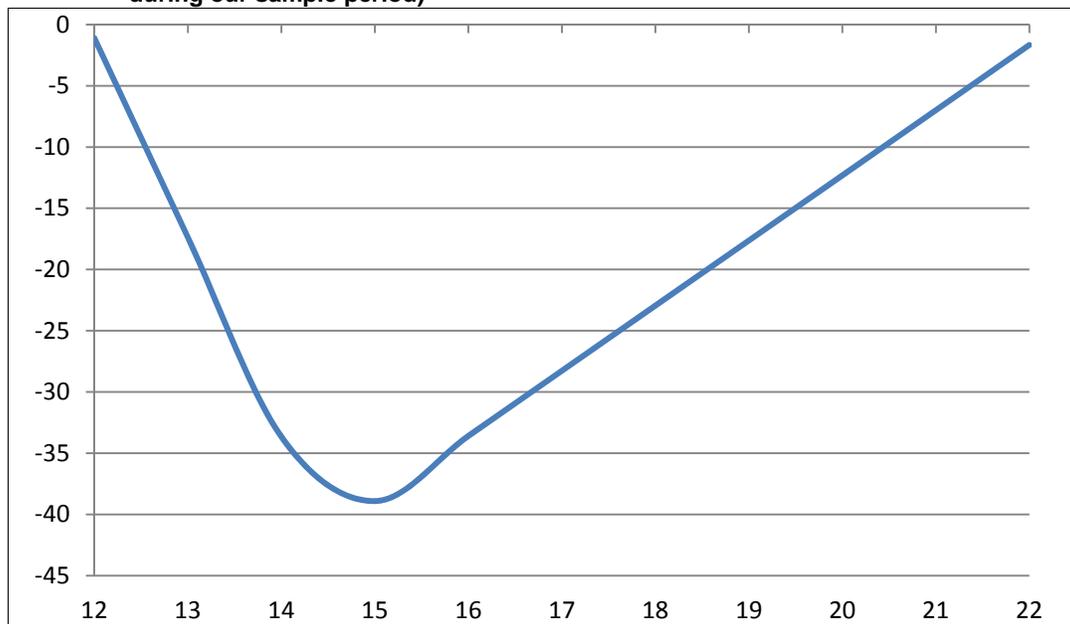
Notes: Vertical axis has CDS spreads; horizontal axis has sovereign ratings as scaled in Table 2.

Figure 4a: Change in CDS Spread Associated with Credit Rating Change Conditional on Level of Credit Rating



Notes: Full Sample (Pre-Crisis, Crisis) graph calculated from Table 7 (Table 8), Column 7 (Columns 5, 6), spline function estimation. For credit rating level 19-25(A- to AAA), $d1=d2=1$; for rating level 10-18 (B- to BBB+), $d1=1$ and $d2=0$; for rating level 1-9 (CCC+ and below), $d1=d2=0$.

Figure 4b: Change in CDS Spread Associated with Credit Rating Change Conditional on Level of Credit Rating, excluding the low end of the range (only occupied by Greece during our sample period)



Notes: Full Sample (Pre-Crisis, Crisis) graph calculated from Table 7 (Table 8), Column 7 (Columns 5, 6), spline function estimation. For credit rating level 19-25(A- to AAA), $d1=d2=1$; for rating level 10-18 (B- to BBB+), $d1=1$ and $d2=0$; for rating level 1-9 (CCC+ and below), $d1=d2=0$.

Table A1: Data Descriptions and Sources

Variable	Description	Source
CDS Spread	Market prices for five-year sovereign CDS contracts (in a basis points), daily data is averaged into monthly values. Used as monthly basis point change in regressions.	Markit, Bloomberg
Sovereign Ratings	Fitch and Standard & Poor's long-term foreign currency ratings, scaled from 1 (D) to 25 (AAA). Monthly (in unit) change	Fitch and S&P websites
Stock Prices	Local Stock Market Index -- MSCI or host country. Used as monthly percentage change in regressions.	Bloomberg, Thomson Reuters Datastream
Commodity	S&P Goldman Sacks Commodity Price Index (SPGSCI), US dollar. Used as monthly percentage change in regressions.	Bloomberg
Oil Price	Crude oil price (\$/bbl), monthly average Used as monthly percentage change in regressions.	World Bank Commodity Price Data (Pink Sheet)
VIX	Chicago Board Options Exchange Market Volatility Index (implied volatility of S&P 500 index options), monthly average (of daily adjusted close)	Yahoo-Finance